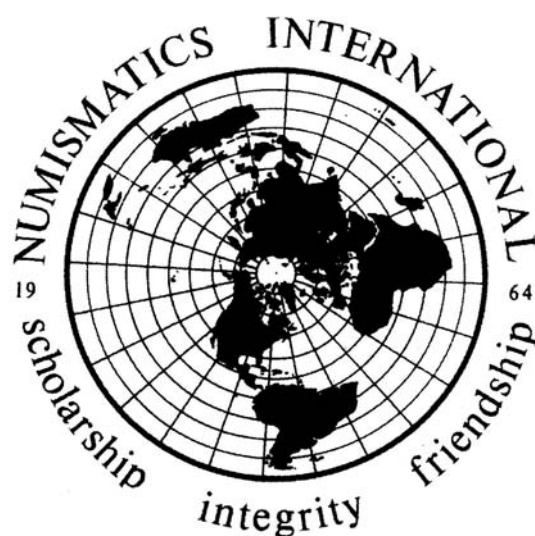


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COMMON CHINESE COINS - - IN 1400 A.D.

by Thomas W. Keener, Arlington, Virginia, NI #1207

I could always do worse than collect Chinese coins, I thought. After all, they're still high on the list of numismatic sleepers; most of the supply is still on mainland China, and it's against Chinese law to export them. After straining my eyes trying to sort, identify, and attribute almost 10,000 pre-Ching Dynasty (1644-1911) coins, however, I was almost willing to concede that they had a fine law, and become one of numismatic's sleepers myself.

The batch under study had been part of a sea-salvage lot, acquired somewhere off the coast of Thailand, and subsequently sold to a dealer in that country. He, in turn, picked off the better coins. Afterward, the rest were sold to another person who passed them to me for attribution. Supposedly, then, what I received was a hernia-inducing pile of "common" ancient Chinese coins. It provided quite an education.

FIRST GRADE

Ancient coins have a lot in common with the soil from which they come, even if that soil is beneath the sea. Dirt. After an hour or so of sorting through the coins, I looked like I had met the entire membership of the Coal Miners Union as they emerged from the mines. A quick cure, found after experimenting with everything and the kitchen sink, consisted of a teaspoon or so of regular liquid dishwashing detergent worked without water into the dirty areas and then washed off. Still, modern science has yet to improve on a pair of inexpensive rubber kitchen gloves.

Following that bid of academic inquiry, it became rapidly apparent that 10,000 coins could not be sorted and attributed overnight unless your nights exceed 120 hours in length. Naturally, the condition of the coins didn't help as they ranged from probable washers to practically cast yesterday. Since one's skills in a language can't help when it comes to reading something which simply isn't there, fully 2/3 of the coins had to be culled out.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The coins told a lot about what had happened 600 years ago. The vessel had sailed around the beginning of the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644) (item: the latest coin found was from the reign of Hung Wu, 1368-98) and was destroyed by fire (item: substantial number of burned or semi-melted coins). The ship was quite likely sailing from China, probably either Shanghai or Hangchou (item: relatively

"large" proportion [4%] of the Hung Wu coins bore the Chekiang provincial mintmark, wherein the two aforementioned cities are either located or immediately alongside; almost 2% had the Fuchou provincial mintmark, located south of and adjacent to Chekiang. None had any of the other four possible mintmarks.) and probably carried as part of its cargo of coins many made of iron (item: iron + seawater + time = a magnetic mass attached to the adjoining coin). Why it would have been so far from traditional Chinese waters, whether it was a pirate or Imperial Chinese ship, and why it would have carried such a large amount of coins instead of trade goods (ballast, perhaps?) are questions which the coins can't answer.

HIGH SCHOOL

So-called "common" ancient Chinese coins may all be ancient and Chinese, but they're certainly not all common. Early on in the sorting process, it occurred to me that this was a unique opportunity to actually find out what coins were common during the early years of the Ming Dynasty. After all, if they were common then, they should be proportionally common now; conversely, if they were scarce at that time, they weren't likely to become more plentiful as time passed. The Thai dealer had helped a bit (unfortunately) by eliminating the rarer coins according to today's market as well as the multiple-value cash pieces so all I had to worry about were the easy ones.

To understand why this is of interest numismatically, one should have a good foundation in that part of statistics called "random sampling". Basically, all that requires is that the items one may be investigating be selected without bias. Consequently, the items will represent a general distribution or availability. Because the coins I was looking at had already been scanned for rarities, I had to treat them as a random sample of common coins. Similarly, they had to be treated as a random sample of coins probably available somewhere along China's coast, probably either in Shanghai or Hang-chou. Finally, a few assumptions had to be made: the original group of coins was not part of some ancient Chinese coin collector's treasure or otherwise selected with care by the accumulators; the coins were not bagged or sorted by emperor for transportation; the coins all had an equal chance of being corroded into obscurity by seawater; and, the Thai dealer picked off only those coins which are today considered rare. So, what we end up with is information on the availability of "common" coins along China's coast during the early years of the Ming Dynasty. The nice thing about it is that most of the coins now available came from port cities and that what this shows should be quite similar to what can now be found over-the-dealers-counter for collection.

Having gone that far, the rest is easy. As can be seen on the chart, the quantities found were pretty widely distributed, both among emperors and among style identifiers as shown in Schjorth's *CHINESE CURRENCY*, 1965 Ed., Krause Publications, Inc. Since Schjorth is rather widely used, it seemed best to use Schjorth numbers, or S#, for reference here.

If you count the number of reign titles listed on the chart, you will find 35; the total number of coins is 3297. That would give an average of 94 coins per reign title if they were evenly distributed. Clearly, they're not. Seven emperors showed up with from one

to three coins, which computes to a chance of about 1/1000 of locating them, so they should be eliminated from averaging and dealt with as uncommon, or perhaps scarce. Since this article deals with common coins, that leaves 28 emperors in that general category; 10 coins are also deducted from the total, now giving an average of 117 coins per emperor. After treating the S# in the same fashion, eliminating those which only have one to three coins noted on the chart, the S# average is 49. So what does this mean?

GRADUATION

If you collect Chinese coins by reign title and have had difficulty locating some even though the Schj  th price supplement indicates that they are common, don't be dismayed. The chart indicates how common they were 600 years ago; the closer the number gets to 4 from 117, the more difficult these coins were to come by even then. Similarly, the greater the number beyond 117 on the chart, the more common they should be today. The same holds true for the S#, although the reference point is now 49, not 117. While this is not 100% reliable as the quantity of uncommon coins may have increased with the discovery of a hoard within the last 600 years, or perhaps suddenly decreased the number of common coins through a selective melt, the chart is probably pretty close to what now exists.

SOME INFERENCES

Between 1126-1368AD was a dynasty called the Southern Sung. Coins from this period fall generally between S#671 - 1126 and, as the chart shows, were almost non-existent. Two possible explanations occur: they were picked off by the Thai dealer, or they are genuinely hard to find. The truth seems to be a combination of the two -- most of those which appeared were probably grabbed up as they are normally hard to find. However, the dealer probably would not have been so careful as to also pick up the non-iron varieties which exist within the more common reign title groups, such as those which rated an individual S# simply on the basis of a fingernail mark on the reverse casting die. Thus, many which appear in small quantities or don't appear at all on the chart within a generally plentiful reign are probably representative of their actual "uncommonness".

A FINAL NOTE

I will be going through this again soon with a new group of coins having the same origin. The results will be submitted again, although with less verbiage, as I could conceivably have to eat my words if the new distribution is too far off.

DISTRIBUTION OF ANCIENT CHINESE COINS

<u>Schj��th No.</u>	<u>Quantity Found</u>	<u>Reign Title</u>	<u>Total for Reign</u>
312	223	Kai Yuan	
315	31	" "	
316	4	" "	
321	4	" "	
322	1	" "	270
323	1	" "	
324	1	" "	

<u>Schjöth No.</u>	<u>Quantity Found</u>	<u>Reign Title</u>	<u>Total for Reign</u>
329	2	Kai Yuan	
334	3	" "	
353	10	Chien Yuan	10
385	1	Kai Yuan	2
398	1	" "	
445	1	Tang Kuo	1
451	14	Sung Yuan	15
452	1	" "	
460	23	Tai Ping	23
463	14	Shun Hua	
464	17	" "	38
464a (*)	7	" "	
465	23	Chih Tao	
467	15	" "	67
468	29	" "	
469	69	Hsien Ping	69
471	88	Ching Te	88
474	108	Hsiang Fu	
475	10	" "	183
476	46	" "	
477	19	" "	
480	77	Tien Hsi	78
481	1	" "	
484	79	Tien Sheng	
485	2	" "	208
486	127	" "	
489	9	Ming Tao	17
490	8	" "	
492	9	Ching Yu	43
494	34	" "	
496	11	Huang Sung	
497	124	" "	377
498	33	" "	
499	98	" "	
500	111	" "	
509	7	Chih Ho	
510	5	" "	43
511	24	" "	
512	2	" "	
513	5	" "	
514	14	Chia Yu	
515	18	" "	70
516	14	" "	
517	24	" "	
519	47	Chih Ping	
523	51	" "	100
526	2	" "	

<u>Schjörth No.</u>	<u>Quantity Found</u>	<u>Reign Title</u>	<u>Total for Reign</u>
527	22	Hsi Ning	
529	54	" "	
530	12	" "	241
531	3	" "	
533	122	" "	
535	28	" "	
547	227	Yuan Feng	
548	3	" "	415
549	1	" "	
551	184	" "	
565	104	Yuan Yu	
566	6	" "	289
567	179	" "	
585	57	Shao Sheng	
586	66	" "	124
587	1	" "	
599	18	Yuan Fu	
602	20	" "	38
607	64	Sheng Sung	
609	22	" "	112
610	26	" "	
628	64	Ta Kuan	
629	6	" "	70
634	57	Cheng Ho	
635	111	" "	171
637	3	" "	
649	4	Hsuan Ho	
653	2	" "	10
654	2	" "	
655	2	" "	
714	2	Shun Hsi	
719	1	" "	3
763	1	Shao Hsi	1
788	1	Ching Yuan	1
877	1	Chia Ting	1
1038	1	Ching Ting	1
1083	6	Cheng Lung	6
1137	101	Hung Wu	
1138	1	" "	
1140	1	" "	112
1141	2	" "	
1145	5	" "	
1148	2	" "	

* Schjörth number 464a is listed in the verbal section of his book. There is no line drawing, however, in the graphic section. For those who wonder what it looks like, it does appear on P. 39, lower left photograph, 1st column, second row of Coole's *COINS IN CHINA'S HISTORY*, 1963 Ed., Inter-collegiate Press, Inc.

COINS OF POLAND'S JAGIELLO DYNASTY

by Arthur J. Majewski, Detroit, Michigan, MI #1166

Three factors were instrumental in establishing the Jagiello Dynasty: circumstance, necessity and destiny. Circumstance encompassed the existence of the maxim of male issue to succeed in line of succession, and although having married four times, the King of Poland, Kazimierz Wielki, finding himself without a son. Necessity was manifested by the presence of the Teutonic Order, both powerful and arrogant. Necessity demanded the control, diminution or elimination of this threat in the northeastern parts of Poland. Destiny resolved all these matters in ways undreamt of by human planners.

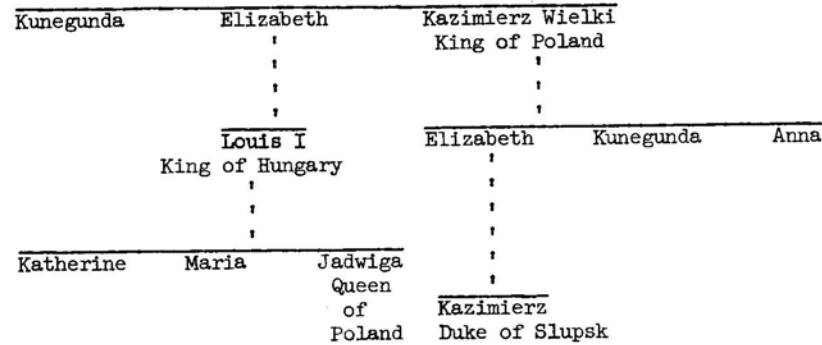
Kazimierz Wielki sought to resolve his dynastic dilemma by turning to his nephew, Louis I, the Great, King of Hungary. Not only blood bound them, for in addition, they were very good friends. In consideration of Kazimierz Wielki appointing Louis to succeed him as King of Poland, Louis undertook to supply a son for the throne of Poland. Time established the two monarchs had more in common than kinship and friendship, for it soon was apparent that Louis could not produce sons either. Not for the throne of Hungary, not for the throne of Poland.

When Kazimierz Wielki died in 1370, Louis I became King of Poland. Although Louis was regarded as "Great" in Hungary, he was far from that in Poland. He considered Poland an appendage to his dynastic policy. Thus, he left Poland to his agents to administer, which incidentally was performed poorly. Louis never effectively controlled or ruled Poland. Subsequently, Poland avenged itself for Louis by sending Wladyslaw Dobry to act as King of Hungary.

With the realization that no males would be born, Louis I decided to vary the terms of the agreement with Kazimierz, which variance would enable him to appoint a daughter to the throne of Poland. His mother, Elizabeth, sister of Kazimierz Wielki, aided him in securing the Polish aristocracy's acceptance of the revision. Louis initially chose his oldest daughter, Catherine, to be Queen of Poland. She was engaged to the son of Charles V of France. However, Catherine died before Louis. He then picked Maria, who was engaged to Sigismunt of Luxemburg. Louis I forced the Poles in 1374 to accept Maria and her husband, Sigismunt of Brandenburg, as their future king and queen. But when Louis died in 1382, Maria became Queen of Hungary. Originally, Jadwiga was slated to be Queen of Hungary, but with that vacancy resolved, Elizabeth then proposed her youngest daughter, Jadwiga, to be Queen of Poland.

Louis I's daughter, Jadwiga of Anjou, was only 11 years old when she became Queen of Poland, and she was destined to die but fifteen years

Wladyslaw Lokietek
King of Poland



(Kazimierz Wielki married four times:

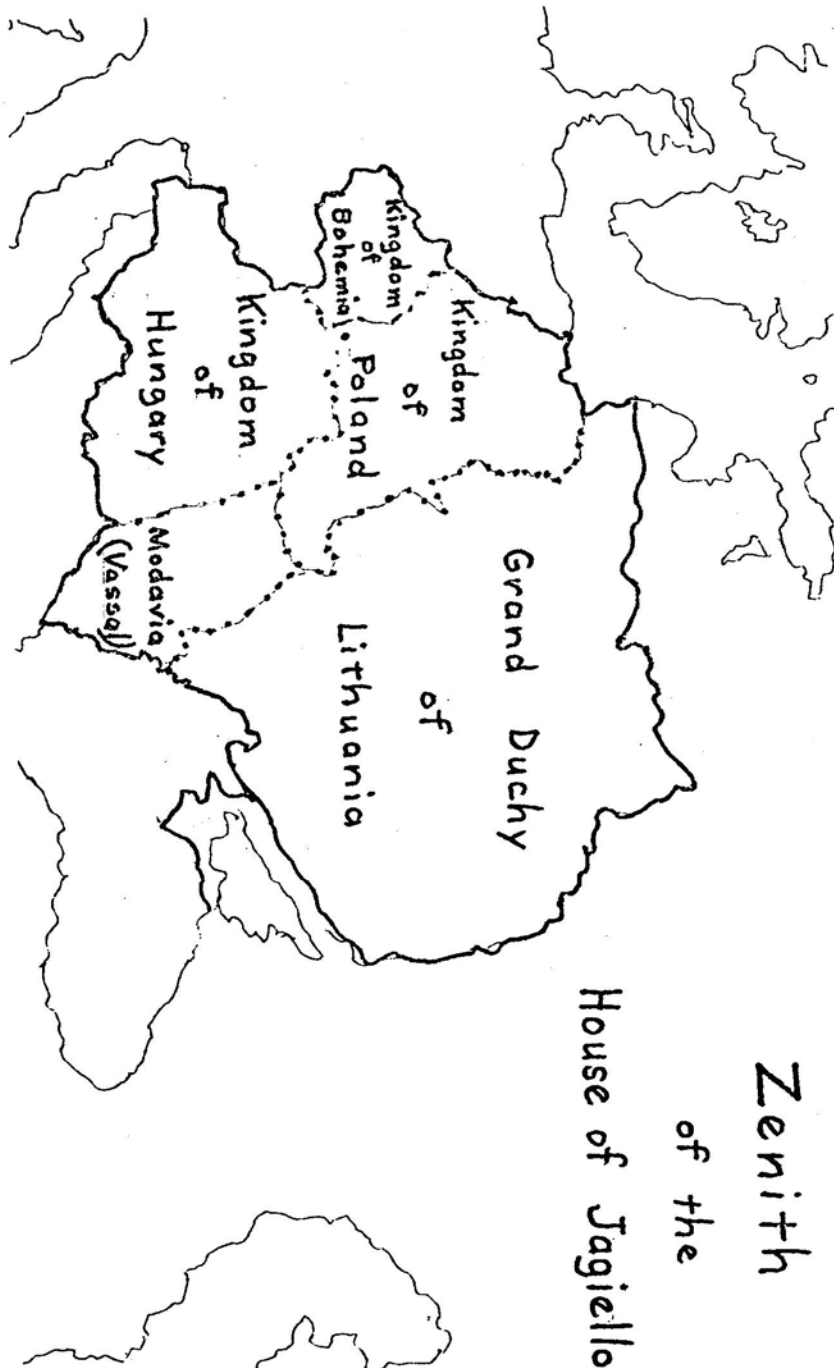
1. Aldona, daughter of Giedymin, Duke of Lithuania.
2. Adelajde, daughter of Landgraf of Hesse.
3. Krystyna Rokicznka (Czech.).
4. Jadwiga, Duchess of Sagan.

later. Jadwiga's father intended her to marry William of Hapsburg, son of Leopold III of Austria, but this intention was opposed by Poland's nobility due to the distrust of a German prince on the Polish throne. There is evidence, although not conclusive, that Jadwiga would have preferred William to her other suitors among who was Ziemovit of Masovia, a Piast.

It is difficult to see why Kazimierz Wielki should have looked toward Hungary for succession to the throne of Poland. When one looks at the genealogical chart, it is evident that any of his daughters were closer in kinship than his nephew Louis, or Jadwiga, his nephew's daughter.

Before proceeding, one more point should be mentioned. When Kazimierz observed that Louis had no male issue and probably would not, Kazimierz tried to alter the agreement with Louis. Kazimierz attempted to appoint his favorite grandson, Kazimierz, Duke of Slupsk, in Louis' stead. There were enormous advantages to this choice. Kazimierz Wielki's daughter, Elizabeth, had married the prince of Western Pomerania, which at the time still maintained its Slavic character. It was her son, also named Kazimierz, whom the King wanted to adopt as his son. To further insure this plan, the King left a testament leaving the Polish provinces adjacent to Eastern and Western Pomerania and vast territories in central Poland to Kazimierz, Duke of Slupsk. Had this plan succeeded, the King would have effectively placed a vast wedge between the Germanic states of the west and the Teutonic Order of the east. Unfortunately for Poland, Louis I thwarted these plans on Kazimierz Wielki's death.

Zenith of the House of Jagiello



Jadwiga became Queen of Poland in 1384. And when the nobility decided that her marriage to Wladyslaw Jagiello, Duke of Lithuania, would serve Poland's interest in three ways, the inception of the Jagiello Dynasty was forged. The three areas of Poland's advantage in the marriage were: first, Poland had a monarch on the throne; second, Poland had a more effective defense against the Teutonic menace; and third, Poland's nobility was pleased with the acquisition of enormous territories, especially in the southeast.

The Jagiello Dynasty had many notable kings. Following is a list of the Jagiellos in Poland:

Jadwiga	1384-1386
Wladyslaw Jagiello	1386-1434
Wladyslaw Wawrenczyk	1434-1444
Kazimierz Jagiellonczyk	1447-1492
Jan Olbracht	1492-1501
Aleksander	1501-1506
Zygmunt I Stary	1506-1548
Zygmunt II August	1548-1572

At the zenith, the House of Jagiello rivaled the most powerful of Europe. Its influence extended from the Baltic to the Black to the Adriatic Seas. Many of the contemporary monarchs of this day can trace their ancestry to the "Mother of the Jagiellos", Anna Jagiellonka (1576-1596)

Leaving the political aspects and background of the Jagiellos, we enter the monetary arena. The Piast Dynasty used denars as the basic currency of the Kingdom, and the Jagiellos relied on the grosz. Before the transition from the denar to the grosz was complete, Poland underwent profound monetary troubles. Poland at the end of the denar period found its denars of varying sizes and values, and with no legends so that it was difficult at time, if not impossible, to ascertain which king struck the coin and for what value.

Additionally, the government called in coins several times a year. New coins were minted with different designs and placed in circulation.

Further, the currency of the country was further complicated by the influx of foreign coins. These came from different countries, were of different weights, different denominations, various values, and were in different languages.

Finally, the populace called upon to use this monetary system was lacking in education, both reading and math skills.

The coinage of the nation, the sole medium of exchange, became meaningless in trade, especially in large transactions. Reform became essential.

The first reform was a natural correction, an adjustment by the people. Traders simply by-passed counting various denars, bracteats and foreign coins by simply weighing them in mass. They used a unit corresponding to the weight of silver called GRZYWNA. This was

equivalent to one-half pound or eight ounces or 182.5 grams. In the early middle ages it was called a Piastowska Grzywna.

Certainly working with one-half pound units of silver was not sufficient improvement to remedy the monetary turmoil. Smaller divisions were necessary. Therefore, a grzywna was divided:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Grzywna} &= 24 \text{ Skojce} \\ \text{Skojce} &= 1/24 \text{ Grzywna}\end{aligned}$$

The second reform was the institution of a thicker and wider coin (of silver) to replace the denar. This coin came to be known as a grosz, groat, grossus, and gross. The grzywnas transition into skojce and back into grzywnas needed translation into coin of the realm. Thus, we find:

Grosz	=	1/48 grzywny
1/2 Grosz	=	kwartnik
2 Groszy	=	skojce
Grzywna Piastowska	=	183.5 grams silver
Grzywna	=	24 skojce
Grzywna	=	48 groszy
Grzywna	=	96 kwartniks
Grzywna	=	96 half groszy
Kwartnik	=	1/4 skojce
Skojce	=	1/24 grzywna
Skojce	=	2 groszy
1/48 Grzywny	=	grosz
1/96 Grzywny	=	kwartnik
Denarii quartenses	=	kwartnik

This would mean that from one grzywna of silver, the government would mint or strike 48 groszy. With this system the silver content in coins became uniform in Krakow, Wroclaw, Slask and in all of Poland.

Although the original grzywna was the Grzywna Piastowska, the pressures of local conditions, time and inflation added more types. From 1300 to 1434, the Krakow Grzywna of 197.68 grams appeared and was equal in value to 48 Czech grossus, or 48 Polish grosze, or 96 Polish half grosze. Since more silver appeared in the Krakow grzywna, it would seem there was more silver content in a grosz from a Krakow grzywna.

During the war (Thirteen Year War) against the Tuetonic Order, at the request of the Prussian states, King Kazimierz Jagiellonczyk granted minting rights in 1457 to Gdansk (Danzig), Elblag (Elbing), and Torun (Thorn). These three Polish cities struck szelags (a coin sometimes called a "solid", "solidus" or "shilling") to replace the szelags of the Tuetonic Order. All three used the grzywna Chelminska. However, Gdansk had 137.5 grams to a grzywna; Torun had 136 grams to a grzywna; and Elblag had 132 grams to a grzywna. All three were of 0.327 of pure silver, showing a diminution in the quality as well as weight, in silver content. Hence the coins of the three cities were inferior to those of the other areas of the Crown.



First dated coin of Poland, the Grosz of Glogow, 1506, was minted during the Jagiello Dynasty. The legend reads: "Son of Kazimierz, King of Poland". Size, 24 mm.

It should be kept in mind that all of Europe encountered similar difficulties with their currency, and found monetary reform essential. The first gros (Latin, "Nummi grossi") comes from Tours, France, and was minted in 1240 A.D. Subsequently, Wacław II, King of Bohemia and Poland, used the French gros as a model and struck the Prager Grossus in 1290 A.D. This last coin has the reputation of being the first gros ever minted. At the same time, possibly sooner, Henry III, Duke of Glogow (Glogau) minted a kwartnik (half grosz) for Slask (Silesia). Kazimierz Wielki, during his reign (1333-1370), minted a Grosz Krakowski, a numismatic rarity. However, he also attempted to replace the Prager Grossus circulating in Poland with a Polish coin. He chose the kwartnik, a half grosz coin for this purpose. The plan failed for two reasons. Poland, unlike Bohemia, had no silver mines, thus it became too expensive to import silver for competition with Bohemia. Further, the plan did not succeed due to inflation. Kazimierz Wielki decreed that from the grzywna not 96 but 120 kwartniks should be struck. So Bohemia's money following Gresham's law proved superior.

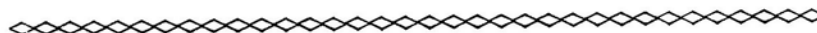
During the reign of Sigmunt August an interesting development unfolded in Lithuania. One mint in the city of Wilno coined money for the entire country. The coins meant for Lithuania had the legend reading around the bust of the king in a circle. Those meant for the Crown (Poland proper) had a two line legend around the bust. This distinction was no idle exercise for the two currencies were not equal in value.

1 grosz for Lithuania equaled 1.25 Polish grosz which =
 2 Lithuanian one half grosz coins, which =
 5 coins of Lithuania of two denar denomination which =
 10 denars of Poland.
 1 Polish grosz equaled 0.8 Lithuanian groszy, which =
 1.6 half grosze for Lithuania which =
 4 coins for Lithuania of 2 denar denomination, which =
 8 denars for Lithuania.

Obviously the situation wherein there were coins called grosze, kwartnik, and denars in one kingdom but of different values was not only aggravating, but it proved offensive to the Poles who refused to admit their coins were inferior to those coming from the Lithuanian section of the Kingdom.

To illustrate the complications involved, a few more points should be mentioned. A reckoning unit called "kopy" was utilized to signify 60 of a kind. Further, the quality of the silver was inferior even in the coins meant for Lithuania. For example, the Lithuanian denars minted at the time had 3.5 parts silver to 12.5 parts copper. Resultingly, one half grosz equaled five denars. And five coins of the two denar denomination for Lithuania was equal to 1 grosz for Lithuania. Simultaneously, 1 grosz for Poland equaled four coins of the two denar denomination for Poland.

New denominations for coins appeared. A half denar coin called an "obole" or "polenar" appeared, but only to eliminate some official counterfeit coins from circulation. With the disappearance of this counterfeit, the obole likewise disappeared. The Duke of Swiednica issued a half-grosz coin which resembled, but was not in fact, the higher grade Polish half-grosz coin of higher silver content. The only difference between the coins was the Duke's name "Ludwik" appearing on this official counterfeit. In practice, the appearance of Ludwik's name made little difference, for the populace was for the most part illiterate and accepted the coin readily. The obole which was introduced to cure the situation truly represented the silver value in Ludwik's coin. Incidentally, unofficial counterfeiters were burned at the stake at the time. Official counterfeiters faced anger and possible war, but no punishment could be directly exacted.



TAKE LIFE A LITTLE EASIER

by Gabriel A. Grams

A Renaissance medal without a flaw
 Had attracted a dealer from Saginaw.
 In order to get it
 And not to regret it -
 He paid cash and threw in his mother-in-law!

SPREAD THE WORD ABOUT NI

It seems that NI is one of the best kept secrets in the numismatic world. Many times when we get a new application, the applicant will comment that he wished he had known about NI much earlier. It is a puzzle as to why this happens as NI gets reasonable coverage in the commercial numismatic publications and has published seven references over the past several years.

We are always seeking new members, so if you have a friend who does not know of NI, let us send them a complimentary copy of the *NI BULLETIN*, plus a membership blank. Write today to the Membership Chairman at the regular Dallas mailing address.

Addenda et Corrigenda

by I. C. G. Campbell, Univ. of Nebraska-Lincoln, NI #1077

1. ISLAMIC CALENDARS

Robert L. Clarke (Tehran) kindly wrote to express appreciation of the help my "Islamic Calendars" (*NI BULLETIN*, September 1976, pp.298-306) had given him. He gave me additional suggestions and information, both for that and my article "Modern Islamic Coinage - Persia and Afghanistan" (*NI BULLETIN*, October 1976, pp.341-353).

From all this I have asked our editor to publish the following for greater accuracy and because I believe collectors of modern coinage will find the notes of help.

Unmentioned by myself was the problem of the A.H. leap year. The 30 year A.H. year cycle has an extra day, "Zihajah 30", in the following years of the cycle: 2nd, 5th, 7th, 10th, 13th, 16th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 26th and 29th. So it is that in these years the religious festivals move back only 10 days.

As matters were in December 1976 in Iran, there were two calendars simultaneously in use. Except for business dealings, the A.H. calendar was never really abandoned in 1925. (In the same way during my years in Turkey, devout Moslems in Anatolia still used the religious time. When travelling, if a bus or train was the objective, it was essential to know which was being used. When summer time was introduced during World War II, life was even more complicated!) Clarke mailed some pages from his desk calendar showing the use of the A.D. date. When the new Monarchic calendar replaced the S.H. calendar on March 21, 1976, the S.H. 1355 year became the year 2535, as shown on the note we illustrated in the article. The months remained the same and the printed calendars had no change because the notice was too short. The real effect came this year on March 21st, 2536. The gold coins last year were dated 1355 (S.H.) but the CuN. pieces were 2535 as they appeared in Ordibehesht 2535.

A very important point for collectors of paper money is the fact that the last *regular issue* bank note which carried a date was the 50 rials of 1343 (S.H.). In other words, the notes of the past 12 years have all been undated.

Clarke has been able to list 4 distinct types by series of these regular issues. Two of these occur with two signature varieties. The other two are found with three signature varieties or combinations.

The only bank notes dated since 1343(S.H.) are two commemorative ones. These are the 50 and 100 rials notes which bear the date 1350 (S.H.). They honor two principles of the Shah People revolution, although in point of fact they were issued in connection with the 2500 year celebration.

The two notes illustrated in my original article (which caused some confusion) were issued simultaneously with the new era, 2535, though of course they had been ordered at an earlier date. They carried the most recent signatures combination and were joined last December by a third denomination, the 1000 rials note.

To sum the whole up, there has been no return in Iran to the lunar (A.H.) calendar because, in point of fact, it has been used continuously with the solar (S.H.) calendar from 1926-1976. Since March 21, 1976, both A.H. and S.H. are shown along with the monarchic calendar on the calendar sheets. Three calendars to keep in mind, more confusing to us, really, than to those who live with them daily!

2. IRANIAN COINAGE (NUMISMATIC FRONTIERS)

With reference to the "many pointed star" - the number of the points shown varies - to which I referred as the "background" of the lion, on most Iranian coins is the Rising Sun. The Lion and the Rising Sun - which we usually associate with Japan - are the Iranian National Emblem. We are more familiar with the "many pointed" sun - perhaps,



2 Krans 1263 (C229)



Kirmanshahan Falu AH 1245

better, equal pointed sun - or sun face, which is to be found on some of the coins of the Qajar Dynasty which ended in 1925 and on many of the Qajar postage stamps. The lion has been the Persian symbol from ancient or classical times. I do not know, but would suspect the Sun dates to the time of Loroastrianism, though the symbol on the Sasanid coins is always the fire altar. Clarke comments that our "Red Cross Society", or "Red Crescent Society" in Turkey, is the "Red Lion and Sun Society" in modern Iran.



Selcuk Coin With Sun Face

It is worth remembering that from the earliest days of Islam the "Crescent and Star" was its emblem, even as the cross was that of Christianity. The Sun Face is to be found on some Selcuk coins, but sometimes there is also a star.

With reference to the coinage, the earliest machine struck coins in Tehran were the copper 50 and 100 dinars pieces of 1293 (A.H.). The 4 silver, 2 copper set of 1281 (A.H.) patterns in the later designs, Clarke believes to have been struck in Paris. There is a full

set in the British Museum. Clarkewas fortunate enough to find the smallest silver piece, the robi (1/4), in the Tehran bazaar.



*Zanzan, 1236
Gold Toman
C207*



*Isfahan, 1245
Gold Toman
C208*

The two gold pieces of Fath' Ali Shah were struck in Zanzan in 1236 (A.H.). One weighs one mesque, the other three. Both portray the king on a running horse, but the horse faces a different direction on either piece. From Isfahan are three gold pieces which show the Shah on his throne. Clarke has seen the actual throne in Tehran and remarked that it looks more like a 4-poster bed! The dates are 1243 and 1245. (Krause-Mishler illustrates two types, giving the date of 1249 [A.H.] but I think this is a misprint.) He adds that in one variation of the 1245 (A.H.) coins, the Shah is faceless. His outline and that of the throne are clearly visible, but all else is geometric lines

There exists also a silver coin of Muhammad Shah on the same throne, from the Isfahan mint and dated 1264 (A.H.).

As I remarked in my original article one of the primary interests of modern Iranian coinage is its enormous variety-but this fact also complicates an orderly (or complete) collection!

Clarke has studied a good deal both the silver and gold coinage of the Qajar dynasty and he considers that the gold is just as complicated as the silver. He considers Rabino* has the best listing in his illustrations, but even so it is incomplete, while medals are often confused with coins. However, when one remembers that at any time the Shah could send an order to the mint - and did - for some special coins for visitors, or his next formal audience, it is understandable why the coinage, both for standards and weights, is so confusing.

In conclusion, he tells me that a quite extraordinary variety of pieces - modern, that is - are still in circulation. However, the three F.A.O. pieces and the one for the Asian games never did circulate. There are plenty of both at the local banks where they may be obtained for a small premium.

* *Album of Coins, Medals and Seals of the Shah's of Iran. 1500-1948.* By H. L. Rabino di Borgomale. O.U.P. 1951. Charles Batey. There is also a 1945 edition (completed in 1941) but without plates.

BRITISH TRADE DOLLAR

1904/1898 OVERDATE

by John W. LeLacheur, Roi-Namur Island, Kwajalein Atoll, NI #1156



The British Trade Dollar, of English design, was struck mainly in India and circulated in the Orient. It was never a popular collectors coin as it did not fit into any specific category. Therefore, it is not surprising that the 1904/1898 no "B" overdate (pictured above) has been overlooked by numismatists. The overdate can now be classified as very scarce, but who knows how many are in collections undetected? It is difficult to recognize, even with a strong glass.

The British Trade Dollar, officially known as the British Dollar, was coined during the reigns of Queen Victoria, King Edward VII and King George V. The coins were struck between 1895 and 1935.



Three different languages were used on the coin - English, Chinese and Malay. "One Dollar" in English on the obverse, "Yat Yuen" in Chinese characters and "Satu Ringgit" in Malay script is on the reverse. This coin was struck at three mints - the Bombay and Calcutta mints in India and the Royal Mint in London. In the years 1925 and 1930 the London mint struck Trade Dollars with no mintmark. The Calcutta mint produced British Dollars during the years 1900 through 1902. The mintmark, being a small incuse "c" is between the left

foot of Britannia and the shield. The Bombay mint struck dollars during the rest of the years that the British Trade Dollars were

produced. The mint mark for them was a small incuse "B" on the middle prong of the trident. Some years the mintmark was left off the Bombay produced coins, probably because of die wear.

The story of various trade dollars used in the Far East is an interesting chapter of numismatic history. At the time of the founding of Singapore by the East India Company in 1819 and the founding of Hong Kong in 1841, the Mexican Dollar was the primary coin in circulation. It had replaced the Spanish American Portrait and Pillar Dollar series. As early as 1842, officials in the Straits Settlements and Hong Kong were petitioning the British government for an Anglo Chinese Dollar equal to 1000 Chinese cash. The object was to create a stable currency for trade in the Far East and to replace the many types of coins then in circulation. In 1866, a branch of the Royal Mint was established in Hong Kong. It produced Hong Kong Dollars in years 1866 through 1868. This was the first British Dollar produced for trade in the Far East.

The Royal Mint in Hong Kong satisfied the need for a British Dollar for only a short time, failing in 1868. The minting machinery was moved to Osaka, Japan. This same machinery later produced the Japanese One Yens and Trade Dollars, beginning in 1870.

In 1867 the Straits Settlements, which included Penang, Malacca and Singapore, was transferred from British India to the Imperial Government and became a Crown Colony. All Indian coinage was demonitized and the silver dollars of Hong Kong, Spain, Mexico, Bolivia and Peru were specified to be the only legal tender. In 1871, the Japanese Dollar, or Yen, came into circulation, followed by the American Trade Dollar in 1873. These silver coins were both made legal tender in 1874. In the years between 1875 and 1895 the price of silver dropped dramatically, which disrupted trade and caused a shortage of specie. Pressure again built up for a British Dollar. In 1894, authorization was given to mint the British Trade Dollar for general use in the Far East. The coin was made legal tender in the British Colonies of Straits Settlements, Hong Kong and Labuan. The coins were distributed through the banks in Shanghai, Hong Kong, Singapore and Penang. With the introduction of the British Trade Dollar, the Straits Settlements demonitized the American Trade Dollar in 1895 and the Japanese Yen in 1899. The British Trade Dollar was legal tender in the Straits Settlements until 1904. At this time all British, and other dollars held by the banks, were called in and melted to provide silver for the Straits Settlements Dollar to be minted in Bombay. Hong Kong kept the British Trade Dollar legal tender until 1937. This is a short history on how the British Trade Dollar interacted with other Trade Dollars to lubricate the wheels of commerce in the Far East.

During the world depression of the 1930's, the United States Treasury purchased on world markets over two billion ounces of silver. Much of this silver was from the Orient, thus silver from the mines of Lima, Potosi, Mexico City, Guanajuato, Virginia City, and many others found its way back to the New World, where hence it first came. Thus ended a colorful era where the silver dollars of many nations were the principal vehicle of trade in the Far East.

ROYAL IMPERIAL FAMILY SCENES

or

A PORTRAIT GALLERY OF CLASSICAL NUMISMATICS

by I. C. G. Campbell, University of Nebraska-Lincoln

I suppose most ERA enthusiasts would classify Roman Culture as chauvinistic and masculine. However, few cultures have portrayed as many imperial women, wives, daughters and children, as did Rome.

Coins were the main instrument of propaganda for the Roman Government. Who and what appeared on either face of a coin was an indication to the common people of the far flung empire as to who was in power, and/or, in the imperial favor, on the one side, usually the obverse; and what particular policy or idea the government of the day was stressing, on the other side, the reverse. The main exception to the latter was the bronzes, whether medallions or petty cash, issued by the great cities or the provinces, of Asia Minor. In their case, it was often the emblem of the city, or area, or perhaps some product associated with it. Thus, one easily recognizes an Ephesian coin by the bee; or a Rhodian one by the rose.



The cities and countries of Asia Minor (modern Turkey) came under Roman control piecemeal; by conquest, by treaty, by royal will, by expediency, by political blackmail. In many cases the city, or district, concerned retained some of its ancient customs and privileges. One of the latter was the

right to mint coinage. In general, this was limited to bronze or orichalcum. The main exceptions were the cistophoric tetradrachms. This was convenient for the imperial government because it provided the local petty cash - so often in short supply - as well as the needed bullion and the work of striking. Locally, it had the advantage that the people who used it daily knew exactly what it was worth, and could pass it, regardless of who rules in Rome and/or some other portion of the Empire. For this reason, nearby cities and provinces frequently used countermarks to stamp on the the coins of their neighbors, thereby approving its local use, as well as enlarging their own supply of small change.

It was also a very convenient - an profitable, i.e. the seignorage - way of honoring the emperor and the members of his family. It certainly avoided the expense of erecting a statue, or building a temple!

Roman colonial bronzes are quite common in Asia Minor; of infinite variety; and there is still a great deal to be learned about them, as well as from them. Unfortunately, on account of their heavy and long usage, all too often they are badly battered and worn. Like so many other good things, in my days in Turkey, they could be picked up for a few cents wherever one went. Few people bothered

about them because of their unattractive condition and the difficulties attendant on their classification, particularly the countermarks. One of the nicest assignments I ever had was in 1939 or 1940, when some one from the British Embassy in Ankara, a South African, gave me £100 (about \$400 then) to buy all the colonial bronzes I could. Within a very few weeks, by just combing the jewelry boutiques all over the city, and the bazaars, I had amassed a good many hundreds, some of them very lovely pieces.

All of this is by way of an introduction. In the series that follows periodically, I wish to illustrate 2 or 3 coins, imperial or colonial, telling you something of the individual(s) portrayed, the area or city that minted, and the kind of coinage. It will be, if you like, a series of little lessons in Roman Numismatics and History. It will be quite haphazard, as the suitable pictures (and information, usually less easy, as my memory is not what it used to be) become available.



No. 1: This is a bronze sestertius of Geta, struck during the last year of his father's reign. It is dated 210 A.D. by the TR P II COS II (and his murder in 211 A.D.). The S.C. - senatus consultu - found on all earlier Roman imperial bronzes, indi-

cated it was struck by permission of the Senate. This was one of the "left overs" of the era of the Republic, a polite fiction carefully preserved by Octavian Augustus, as a tribute to Republican history and instincts - as well as to pretend that he was merely head of the Republic by virtue of the offices he held, imperator, pontifex maximus, tribune of the people, consul.

As shown by the reverse, Geta was still a small boy (though some of his coins, like this, show him as an adult), but he is shown here as sacrificing with his brother Caracalla (who murdered him as soon as he could) over a tripod. Between the two brothers is someone playing a flute - one might call it a solo during the offertory. This coin is RIC #156 and Cohen #145. It is an R2 coin. This is an unusually lovely specimen. PONTIF indicates he has been appointed "priest", the full imperial title being P.M. (Pontifex Maximus). TR P II indicates "Tribunicia potestas secunda", or that he is holding his second Tribuneship. The second and succeeding tribuneships always coincide with the solar year's beginning. The first one might, depending if the appointment was prior to his accession, or if only taken at the time of his accession. This was originally an elective office by the people as their representative. COS II indicates his second consulship - once also an elective office, this time of the Senate. Both these fictions were preserved by the Imperial regime; but the real value of the title may be shown in that one Emperor had his favorite horse designated a consul.

The obverse shows that he had become Augustus (a title added in

honor of Octavian) and Imperator. To secure his dynasty, Severus had intended both his sons to succeed. Inevitably Geta was one of his brother's first victims. The latter's endless murders were only terminated when he himself was liquidated. Geta's coins were strictly imperial, issued only at the mint of Rome.

NEW ISSUES WITH ASSIGNED YEOMAN NUMBERS

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COLOMBIA

Y100 2 Pesos 1977, Cupro-Nickel (23.8mm)

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Y21 5 Pence 1977, Cupro-Nickel (22.5mm)
Y22 10 Pence 1977, Cupro-Nickel (28mm)

ISLE OF MAN

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*Y25a	1 Crown 1977, .925 Silver (38.6mm), Silver Jubilee Appeal

LIBERIA

*Y41 100 Dollars 1977, .900 Gold (26.16mm)
130th Anniversary of the Republic

MALAYSIA

*Y20 200 Ringgit 1977, Gold (25.25mm), 9th Southeast Asia Games

OMAN

Y2 5 Baisah AH 1395 (1975), Bronze (19mm)
Y3 10 Baisah AH 1395 (1975), Bronze (22.5mm)
Y4 25 Baisah AH 1395 (1975), Cupro-Nickel (17.9mm)
Y5 50 Baisah AH 1395 (1975), Cupro-Nickel (24mm)

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*Y111	150 Baht B.E. 2520 (1977), .925 Silver (35mm), 2nd FAO Coinage